

# AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

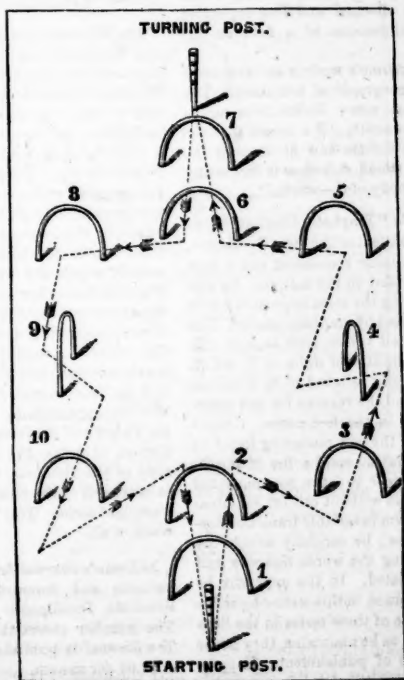
VOL. III.

AUGUST, 1866.

No. 8.

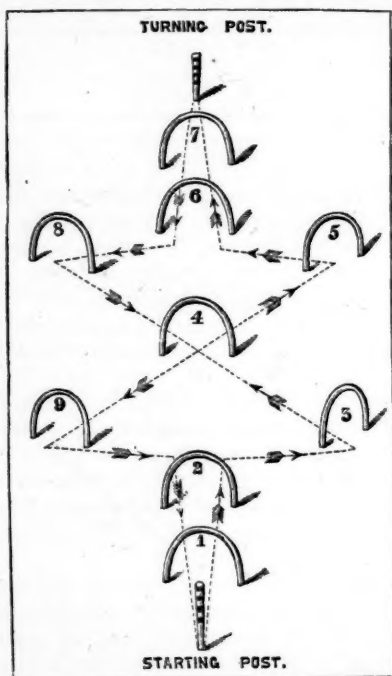
## CROQUET.\*

THERE are so few out-door games in which both ladies and gentlemen can join, that any addition to the number is welcomed by every friend of healthful recreation and social amusement. Probably no game



\* For the illustrations of this article we are indebted to the courtesy of Messrs. Hard & Houghton, Publishers of "The Game of Croquet" by R. Fellow. The rules of the game are taken, with permission, from that book.

ever became so suddenly popular as Croquet ; and surely none could more deserve such popularity. Answering as it does every condition and requirement of a social summer game, it is not surprising that it has become a general favorite wherever it has been introduced. Now that



the necessary implements for the game can be obtained at a moderate cost, there is no reason why Croquet should not find a place on every playground and village green.

#### IMPLEMENTS.

The implements required in the game of croquet are balls, mallets, arches, and stakes. The balls are eight in number. They should be perfect spheres, about three inches in diameter and six ounces in weight. Turkey box-wood, owing to its denseness and durability, is perhaps the best material. Of native woods, rock-maple is considered best by some, while others prefer button-wood or American sycamore. The individuality of the balls being an important element in the game, each ball should be dis-

tinguished by a separate color. The best colors are those which are most distinct—namely, black, white, yellowish green, bright blue, brown, pink, scarlet, and yellow.



The mallets, also eight in number, should be in proportion to the weight of the balls. The best material is apple-wood for the heads, and straight-grained ash for the handles. The heads should be cylindrical in shape, about four inches long, and two inches in diameter. The sides of the head may be slightly hollowed, after the fashion of a dice-box. The handle should be perfectly straight, from thirty to thirty-six inches in length, and one inch in diameter at the end, decreasing gradually to the point of insertion in the handle. Each mallet should have a color corresponding with its ball painted on the handle next the head. These colors serve to keep the balls and mallets in pairs, and also for distinguishing the players.

• The arches are ten in number. They are best made of three-eighths round iron, and should stand when fixed in the ground about twelve inches high, with a span of from eight to ten inches. The height and width of the arches may be varied according to the dimensions of the field and the skill of the players. It is an advantage to have the arches painted white, so that they may be readily distinguished, especially at night-fall.

The stakes, two in number, should be about two feet high, and of the thickness of the mallet handles. On the upper half of the stakes the eight colors used on the balls should be laid on in rings, in the order mentioned above. These rings show the order of play.

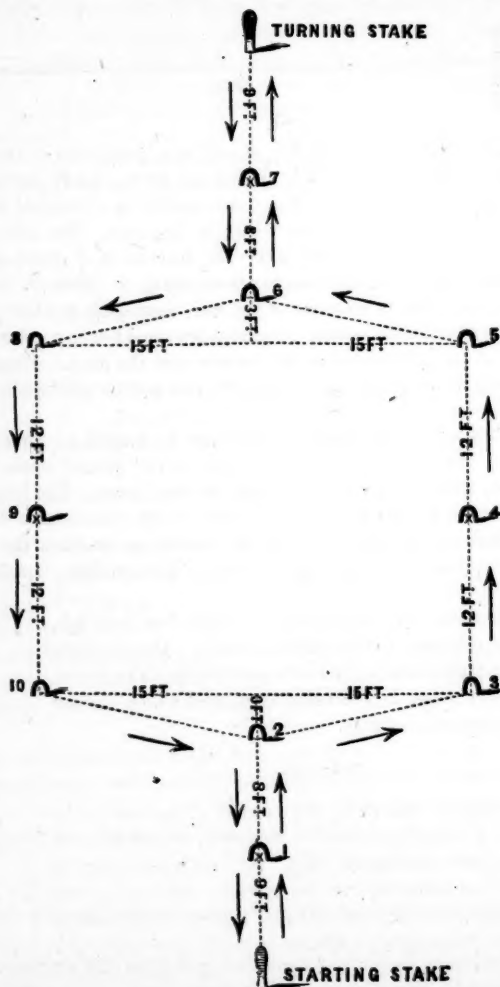
#### THE GAME.

Croquet may be played by any number of persons up to eight. In all cases there must be two sides, or parties, each having the same number of balls. An odd player may be balanced by allowing one on the opposite side to play two balls. With skillful players, six balls, three on a side, make a better game than eight; while many prefer four balls, two on a side, as allowing a quicker and more scientific game.

Two of the party are selected as chiefs, and the sides chosen as in other games. The first choice is usually determined by a trial of skill. Each chief places a ball under the first arch, and plays at



the stake. The one whose ball lies nearest the stake has the first choice. The first chief has black, and his first selection green; the second chief has white, and his first selection blue; and so on. In this way the dark



colors will form one side and the light colors the other; and the play is in the order of the colors on the stakes.



The first player places his ball a mallet's length from the starting stake toward the first arch, and strikes it with his mallet in the direction of that arch. If it passes completely through the arch, he has the right to another blow ; if not, he must wait until his turn comes round again. The succeeding players follow in turn, each playing until he fails to make a point.

The balls are driven through the arches, in order, from 1 to 7, as shown in the diagrams ; then after striking the turning stake through 7, 6, 8, 10, 2, and 1, and go out by striking the starting stake. That side wins, all of whose members succeed in running this round first.

The most common variations in the arrangement of the arches are shown in the accompanying diagrams.

#### DEFINITIONS :

*A Booby.* A ball that fails to run the first arch.

*Concussion.* The displacement of a ball by another ball.

*Croquet.* A privilege gained by making "roquet." The playing ball is placed in contact with, and on any side of, the roqueted ball ; the player holding the former in place with his foot, strikes it with his mallet, thus driving the roqueted ball in any desired direction.

*A Dead Ball.* A rover driven against the starting stake, and thereby struck out of the game.

*A Flinch.* When, in the act of croquet, the playing ball slips from under the foot of the player.

*Point.* Making one or more arches at a stroke ; performing the roquet (except on a booby), the croquet, or the roquet-croquet ; striking the turning stake, together with the combination of any two or more of these.

*Position.* A ball is in position when it lies in front of its proper arch, so that it may be driven through the arch by a single blow of the mallet.

*Ricochet.* Two or more roquets made by a single blow.

*Roquet.* The contact of the playing ball with another ball, under such circumstances as to constitute a point.

*Roquet-Croquet*, or *Croquet sans pied*, differs from croquet in that the playing ball is not held by the foot, but follows the croqueted ball, or diverges in another direction.

*A Rover.* A ball that has made the round, but has not been struck out.

#### RULES :

I. The game is opened by the chief who has won the first choice of friends.

II. The ball must be placed a mallet's length from the starting stake, on a line drawn to the center of the first arch.

III. The ball must be struck with the face of the mallet-head ; the stroke of the mallet being delivered whenever, touching the ball, it moves it.

IV. The player continues to play so long as he makes a point in the game.

V. The players on the two sides follow the first chief alternately, according to the order of colors upon the starting stake.

1. If any ball is played out of its proper turn, and challenged before the play of another ball has commenced, the misplayed ball may be returned to its original place, or permitted to remain in that to which it has rolled, at the option of the enemy; and if a ball so misplayed have gained any advantage for itself or its friends, or done any injury to the enemy, the latter duly challenging may strip the misplayed ball of the advantages thus gained, and repair the damages sustained.

2. If the enemy permit the misplay, or there is no challenge, the misplayer cannot use his next turn, since he has anticipated it.

3. A player using a wrong ball must suffer, and not the owner of the ball: hence, if the misplay is discovered before the next turn, the ball must be restored, the consequences removed, and the misplayer deprived of his turn; if the misplay be not discovered before the next turn, the game proceeds without remedy to either party.

VI. The arches must be passed through in their regular order in the direction of the course.

VII. A ball makes its arch, if it passes through it in regular order, only when it is driven through by a blow from its owner's mallet, or passes through by roquet, croquet, roquet-croquet, or concussion.

1. A ball is through its arch, if the handle of the mallet, when laid across the two piers of the arch upon the side whence the ball came, does not touch the ball.



2. A ball passing through its arch in the wrong direction, and not passing clear through, is not in position to be driven back in the right direction.

VIII. If a ball makes two arches in regular order by a direct blow of

the mallet, it has the right to take ground up to one mallet's length in any direction from the spot where it rested. If it run three arches under the same conditions, it can take ground up to two lengths of a mallet.

[This rule must not be interpreted to conflict with VII.]

IX. Striking the turning stake is in all respects equivalent to making an arch, is subject to the same conditions, and entitled to the same advantages, when these are applicable; but the stake may be struck from any quarter.

X. A ball, after it has completed the round, makes the starting stake either by a blow from its owner's mallet, or by roquet, roquet-croquet, croquet, or concussion. It is then a dead ball, and is removed from the field.

XI. A ball roquets another, whether it proceeds directly by a blow of the mallet or rebounds upon it after the blow, from an arch, a stake, or any other fixed obstacle of the ground, or from another ball.

1. A ball having roqueted, another may strike it again without any intervening play; but the second contact does not constitute a roquet.

2. A ball having made roquet, is at liberty either to make croquet or to proceed on its round.

3. A ball striking another ball, after having croqueted it, and without any intervening play, terminates its tour.

XII. A ball can croquet only that ball on which it has made roquet.

[Hence, a booby cannot croquet or be croqueted.]

1. A player may croquet any number of balls consecutively, but he can not croquet the same ball twice during the same turn, without first sending his own ball through the next arch in order.

2. In making ricochet, the player is at liberty to croquet either the first or all of the balls roqueted, but the order of croquet must be that of the ricochet.

3. A croquet is proved by the stirring of the ball croqueted, provided that the mallet has struck the ball croqueting.

4. If a ball roquet another, and at the same time makes its arch, it may proceed to croquet the roqueted ball, or decline and again roquet upon it before taking the croquet.

5. If a ball flinch in the execution of croquet, the croquet is null, the croqueted ball must be returned to its position, and the croqueting ball proceed with its turn, without the right to repeat the croquet just missed.

XIII. The laws of roquet-croquet are the same as those of croquet.

XIV. A rover may not croquet the same ball twice in one turn.

A croquet or roquet-croquet alone permit the rover to continue his play.

XV. If a ball in its progress over the ground be interrupted by any one, the person playing may allow it to remain where it rested after the interruption, or carry it to the point which he regards as its probable termination.

A ball accidentally displaced must be returned to the place where it was lying, before the play proceeds.

XVI. No play is permitted outside of the boundaries.

A ball driven over the boundary may be brought back to the point where it crossed, when its turn arrives.

XVII. An arch or stake losing its upright position, by any means, must be restored before the game proceeds.

---

### VEGETABLE POISONS.

#### THE UPAS.

UPAS, which means "vegetable poison," is applied indiscriminately to several plants of the East Indies. Botanists have given the name to a member of the *Loganiaceæ* or *strychnos* family; but it properly belongs only to one of the *Urticaceæ*, or nettles, the *Antiaris toxicaria*, or *Upas antiar* of Java and the neighboring islands, where the natives call it *Bohun upas*. Perhaps no tree has been more falsely accused than this. The early Dutch travellers, who were for a long time the only authorities respecting the East, told the most fabulous stories of its fatal qualities. M. Foersch, who visited the Indies during the eighteenth century, reported that "sterility prevails for upwards of ten miles around this dreadful tree on the part of the island of Java where it grows. When criminals are sentenced to death, they are offered a free pardon if they consent to seek a small boxful of this valuable yet terrific poison. They are first sent to the dwelling of a priest, who resides at a safe distance from the spot; there they arrive, accompanied by their wailing and disconsolate families. They remain with this holy man a few days, during which he affords them both spiritual comfort and good advice—the latter urging the precaution not to set out until the wind blows in such a direction as to waft from them the floating emanations. On their departure on this dreaded expedition, he gives them a small box of silver or tortoise-shell, covers their heads and faces with a leathern hood with glass eyes, and protects their hands with a pair of thick gloves of the same material. He accompanies them about two miles on their sad journey, and then he describes the hellish spot where this treasure is to be found as minutely as one can describe what he has not seen; then, giving the poor pilgrims his blessing, he departs on his return. This worthy man informed our traveller that, during thirty years while he had held the situation, he had sent off no less than seven hundred criminals, of whom only twenty-two had returned; and he confirmed the statement by exhibiting a list bearing their names and the offenses for which they had been tried." Foersch also asserted that he

witnessed several of these expeditions, and entreated the culprits to bring him some branches of the tree ; but two withered leaves were the only specimens he could obtain from the solitary wretch who had the good fortune to escape, and who described the tree as growing on the border of a rivulet, being of moderate height, and surrounded by a cluster of young ones. The ground around them was of a brown, sandy nature, and strewn with the remains of human victims. He also ascertained that no living creature can exist within fifteen miles of the spot. The streams that flow near it yield no fish, and the birds that fly over it fall to the ground ; several of the latter were occasionally brought to the priest. Among various offenders doomed to death by this poison, he relates the case of thirteen ladies, who, for the crime of infidelity, were inoculated in the bosom with the point of a kritz, or Malayan dagger, dipped in the upas, and in sixteen minutes they had ceased to live.

Notwithstanding the circumstantial character of Foersch's account, it was wholly false. Nolte, a Dutch surgeon, afterwards visited Java, and ascertained that Foersch had never been on the island ; so that his tale must have been based upon the extravagant statements of Cleyer, Spielman, and Rumphius, who had visited the East long before. Some French travellers found that the tree was common in the forests of Java and Borneo, and that the natives did not hesitate to approach it. When Dr. Horsfield desired to procure some of the poison, he found no difficulty in obtaining assistance from the natives, who objected to handling it only because they feared an annoying cutaneous eruption. In Borneo it is collected by hunters in the interior, who preserve it in leaves of the tree. From the researches of Horsfield and Leschenault it appears that the *Upas antiar* grows upwards of one hundred feet high, with cylindrical stem, naked for sixty or seventy feet. From an incision in the bark, near the ground, a bitter white or yellow juice exudes, which, when exposed to the air, concretes into a black resinous mass. This, when mixed with aromatics, forms the poison. The process of preparing it is known to but few, who pretend to much mystery. When prepared, the upas poison is of the consistency of molasses, and is preserved in closed bamboo tubes.

Among the Javanese the upas is employed only in the chase, and, like the curare of South America, it does not injure the flesh of game. The inhabitants of the adjoining islands, however, use it in warfare ; and the early Dutch soldiers were compelled to wear thick leather cuirasses, stuffed with cotton, in defence against the poisoned missiles. The rapidity with which this agent acts is astounding. Dr. Horsfield asserts that it proves fatal to dogs in one hour, to cats in fifteen minutes, to monkeys in seven minutes, and a buffalo was dispatched in two hours. According to the experiments of M. Leschenault, who brought some of the poison to Europe, the effects depend greatly upon the age and size of the animal. One grain and one-half inoculated in a dog killed it in four minutes ; one

half grain injected into the chest caused death in one minute and one-half ; eight drops injected into the jugular of a horse produced immediate tetanus and instant death.

The upas does not contain strychnia, but Pelletier and Caventon extracted from it a new vegeto-alkali, in which the poisonous properties exist. After death no traces of the poison remain ; the blood-vessels are filled with blackish blood, as after asphyxia. The action is evidently narcotic, death being preceded by absolute nervous prostration. There is, therefore, no positive antidote. The fibre of the upas-tree is excessively irritating, the virus appearing to pervade all parts ; for linen made from the fibres, if not prepared with the utmost care, produces most unpleasant itching.

#### THE CURARE.

Among the Indians of South America several poisons are employed. The *Ticronas* is a mixture of several gums, but its precise composition is concealed, being regarded as a valuable secret. Its powers, like those of the upas, have been greatly exaggerated ; one author having asserted that its odor is sufficient to kill criminals. Of the others, little is positively known of any except the *woorari* or *curare*, whose properties have been fully investigated. This is obtained from the bark of a liana in Guiana, called by the natives *Vejuco de Mavacure*, which appears to be identical with the *Strychnos toxifera*. The process by which it is separated is thus described by Humboldt :\* "The branches are scraped with a knife, and the bark which comes off is bruised and reduced to very thin filaments. A cold infusion is prepared by pouring water on this fibrous mass, in a funnel made of a plantain-leaf rolled up in the form of a cone, and placed in another somewhat stronger, also made of plantain-leaves, the whole supported by a slight framework. A yellowish fluid filters through the apparatus. It is the venomous liquor ; which, however, only acquires strength when concentrated by evaporation in a large earthen pot. To give it consistence, it is mixed with a glutinous vegetable juice obtained from a tree named *kiracaguera*. At the moment when this addition is made, the fluid now kept in a state of ebullition, the whole blackens and instantly coagulates into a substance resembling tar or thick syrup."

The properties of the *curare* have been carefully investigated by M. Claude Bernard. It does not produce local irritation ; for if a bird be wounded by a small and pointed missile it is unconscious of injury. The effect is rather to paralyze the nerves of motion, without immediately affecting consciousness or sensation. Consciousness does not become extinct even with somatic death. A ligature was so tied on the hind legs of a frog as to cut off the arterial circulation without severing the communication between the nerves and spinal cord. A little poison was inserted under

\* "The Travels and Researches of Alex. Von Humboldt," p. 234. Edinburgh, 1833.



the skin of the back, and the animal was put into a covered vessel containing water. The usual symptoms of paralysis ensued, but the hind legs still gave evidences of life ; and when light was admitted to the vessel, the living legs propelled the lifeless body towards it. A stranger peculiarity is, that somatic death, resulting from administration of the curare, may continue for some time before interstitial death takes place. A young ass, inoculated with the poison, fell apparently dead in ten minutes ; the trachea was opened and artificial breathing was kept up for two hours, when the animal raised its head and looked around. It soon died a second time. Artificial respiration was resumed and sustained for two hours. The poor beast again awoke ; its lungs gradually regained their power, and eventually the full use of its limbs was restored. This experiment was originally performed by Waterton and Brodie, and has since been repeated several times with full success.

Though so fearful a poison when introduced into the blood, the *curare* may be tasted without danger ; it is employed by the natives as a remedy for gastric affections. Minute quantities taken into the stomach cause no ill effect, for the flesh of game slain by poisoned arrows is freely eaten, and fowls are usually killed by scratching them with some poisoned instrument. The action of the *curare* resembles that of the *upas*, but is not so rapid, and tetanic spasms are not produced. Both are powerful sedatives, and appear to produce death by asphyxia. Artificial respiration is therefore recommended by Bernard and Delile as the only means of restoration.

#### THE KOMBI AND UGA.

In Mozambique, near Lake Nyassa, as Dr. Livingstone informs us,\* the natives kill wild animals with arrows or spears dipped in the *kombi*. This is obtained from a species of *strophanthus*, and yields a peculiar vegetable alkali resembling strychnia. Except the elephant and hippopotamus, every animal yields to the effect of the poisoned arrows. Like the substances already noted, this does not affect the flesh of game injuriously, only a small portion about the wound being unfitted for food. The same people employ in warfare another poison called the *uga*, which they procure from the entrails of a caterpillar. It is a most powerful virus, causing immediate delirium and speedy death.

#### ORDEAL POISONS.

From very ancient times there have existed among barbarous nations various methods of direct appeal to the Deity to acquit or convict suspected persons. Prominent among these is the ordeal of drinking poison. According to the old Jewish law, when a woman was accused of infidelity to her husband she was compelled to drink the "bitter waters." If gan-

\* "Expedition to the Zambesi," p. 491. New York.

grene set in, her guilt was decided ; but if no ill effect followed, she was adjudged innocent. Perhaps the most widely celebrated of the ordeal poisons is the *Erythrophlœum guineense* of Sierra Leone and Guinea. The plant is upwards of one hundred feet high, and is called by the natives *Grege-tree*. The red juice of this plant is the ordeal poison, and is taken in large draughts by the suspected person. If he is sufficiently strong to withstand the poison he is acquitted ; but if not, he is convicted. In the Zambesi country, on the east coast, a similar ordeal is used. The faith of the natives in the efficacy of *mauve*, as they term the poison, is unbounded ; even the chiefs are not exempt from it, and accused persons frequently drink it voluntarily to demonstrate their innocence. Dr. Livingstone\* conceives that the physician who prepares the *mauve* can save those whom he deems innocent. No accurate information respecting the nature of this poison can be obtained, as the people refuse to answer any questions concerning it.

Capt. Harris† states that in Abyssinia a narcotic poison is employed for the detection of thieves. The process, which is rather indirect, is thus described : "A ring having been formed in the crowded market-place by the spectators, the diviner introduced his accomplice, a stolid-looking lad, who seated himself upon a bullock's hide with an air of deep resignation. An intoxicating drug was, under many incantations, extracted from a mysterious leathern scrip, and thrown into a horn filled with new milk ; and this potion, aided by several hurried inhalations of a narcotic, had the instantaneous effect of rendering the recipient stupidly frantic. At length, secured by a cord, he dragged his master round and round from street to street, snuffling through the nose like a bear, in the dark recesses of every house. After scraping for a considerable time with his nails under the foundation of a hut, wherein he suspected the delinquent to lurk, the imp entered, sprang upon the back of the proprietor, and became totally insensible. The man was forthwith arraigned before a tribunal of justice ; and although no evidence could be adduced, and he swore repeatedly to his innocence by the life of the king, he was sentenced by the just judges to pay forty pieces of salt, which was exactly double the amount alleged to have been stolen."

---

SELF-EDUCATION.—Costly apparatus and splendid cabinets have no magical power to make scholars. In all circumstances, as a man is, under God, the master of his own fortune, so is he the maker of his own mind. The Creator has constituted the human intellect that it can grow only by its own action. Every man must, therefore, in an important sense, educate himself. His books and teachers are but helps ; the work is his.

\* Op. Cit., p. 131.

† "Highlands of Ethiopia," p. 115. New York.



## THE TEACHER'S PROFESSION.

THAT there are evils and disadvantages attending the teacher's profession, few will deny. There is, pervading the atmosphere of society, a settled contempt for him and his vocation—a feeling which, though unexpressed, is none the less felt and acknowledged. Whence this arises, it is needless to speculate; whether it dates its origin far back in the middle ages, when learning was considered a degradation, and is the modern scion of the spirit that led Douglass to exult that neither he nor any of his kinsmen "could pen a line," we know not, but certain it is, it exists; nor is it always concealed from the frequently too sensitive nature of the teacher. His reception in the fashionable drawing-room is marked with cold indifference, and he is fortunate if he escapes without having his ears tingled by some rude remark about his person or his calling. On such occasions, how much is expressed by "He is only a country schoolmaster!" Nor in the less imposing parlor of the patron of his school, is he always cordially welcomed. The same affected superiority is often manifested here even by his pupils.

But the social circle is not the only place in which the teacher is met with contumely. By the public, generally, he is neglected; his merits undiscussed, his labors and trials ignored. He who, most of all, holds the destinies of a people in his hands, whose influence for good or evil must be stamped upon the rising generation, is neither encouraged nor sustained by the public, but treated with indifference or talked of with sneers.

Nor is the teacher better used as regards the pecuniary reward of his labors. The man of medicine and the votary of law often make fortunes; but who ever heard of a teacher getting rich? A few hundred dollars is all he can hope to receive for his toil in the school-room, for all his solicitude and cares. How different is the fate of the physician! For every bolus administered, or recipe written in doggerel Latin, he charges more, often, than the teacher makes in a week of incessant vexation. And his bill is paid. To the first is rendered honor, deference, and wealth; the second is socially disparaged, and, to crown all, is scantily paid.

It becomes us to inquire into the cause of this unwarrantable distinction. Why is the teacher badly paid; why is he treated with indifference; why is his importance overlooked? There are several causes, among which is the world's depreciative estimate of the cultivation of the mental faculties. Not that it does not admire and esteem intellect, for when some master spirit rears itself and speaks,

"The applause of list'ning senates to command,"

"nations hear entranced," and are startled with wonder and admiration of mind before them. But does the world consider how this great temple of

mind was built? Does it reflect that, perhaps, the corner-stone was laid in the humble school-room by a faithful teacher? Does it think with what care and solicitude the foundation was laid, the walls raised; how cautiously, how assiduously the builder wrought? No; the world is a poor thinker. It does not remember that the giant of intellect was once a school-boy; or if it is so reflecting, it does not credit the one who produced the change—who molded the crude materials into such a monument of greatness.

But the want of general esteem for education is not the only cause of the indifference and disrespect manifested toward the teacher, and for the poor remuneration of his services; some share of the blame must be laid at his own door. An old proverb says, "Every man is the maker of his own fortune;" equally true is it, that the members of a profession are responsible for the public estimation of that profession. Perhaps, no calling has suffered so much from the incompetence and unfitness of many who have taken upon themselves its important duties, as teachers. Many a young man enters upon these duties not only with no well-defined idea of the responsibility assumed, but often with no mental or moral attainments fitting him for the position. He may be well-meaning, but with such qualifications how can the youthful soul prosper in his care? Can he give his pupils what he does not himself possess?

There is a teacher of another class—the man who deliberately "takes up" the profession as the stepping-stone to something else; who wishes to study law, medicine, or divinity, and teaches merely for a support, thus trampling one noble calling in the dust to prepare himself for another. He is a teacher, not because he esteems teaching a duty and a pleasure, but rather because it serves his immediate purposes; to be thrown aside when he has no further need of it. With such opinions, such motives, is it likely he will be a true teacher? True, though some of this class take up teaching with no intention of adopting it as a life vocation, they often, ultimately, make it such. So much the worse for the profession. Their motives were faulty in entering; and, surely, six months of unfaithful teaching, though bad enough, is preferable to years of the same. Besides, their remaining in a profession which was not their choice arises not unfrequently from a lack of energy and steadiness of purpose, which is fatal to a faithful discharge of the teacher's duties.

Must not the profession suffer in the hands of such men? And yet the picture is not over-drawn. There is even a darker side. Is the ignorant, the bigoted, the intemperate, the dishonest teacher uncommon? Is it astonishing, then, that the profession is held in poor repute? But, say some, why are not the other professions held responsible for the offenses of individuals? Why is not medicine decried for the fatal blunders of tyros and quacks? law for the chicanery, the dishonesty, and meanness of pettifoggers? We must answer, the world is unjust. Part of this dis-

crimination, however, is due to the fact that incompetent teachers are more numerous than unworthy physicians and attorneys. Another ground for it is, that mankind estimates every thing by the cost, and esteems the teacher's profession entitled to less respect because its attainment is attended with less expense. Another cause rests with the teachers themselves. How can they entertain the hope that others will respect their profession, when they themselves do not? It is urged that if the teacher were more justly compensated, inferior men must give place to better. This is most assuredly true. Money is all-powerful. What, indeed, keeps talent and learning out of the teacher's profession, if it be not that better remuneration is offered by nearly every other. That there have been and still are many who overlook even this natural and important consideration, we would not deny. But the dollar is almighty. Make the profession lucrative, and in time not only will genius and learning become its votaries, but respect and renown be laid at its feet.

But how is the *desideratum*—increase of salaries—to be effected? Will the world, of its own accord, suddenly see its error, and now, after denying it for ages, render the teacher his merited reward? It is hardly to be expected. Were teachers all to become educated, dignified men, each exemplifying in himself the model instructor, men would say, "We have treated these men with injustice; henceforth, we will make them amends." But this reformation is no more probable than the other. This, then, is the issue: it is desirable, on the one hand, that the teacher be better rewarded both pecuniarily and in the respect due him professionally; on the other hand, that he should elevate himself in moral and intellectual worth. Either of these two objects being effected, must eventually produce the other. But the world refuses the first, because it thinks the teacher unworthy of it; and the teacher, wanting in wisdom, foresight, and desire for improvement, does not stir in the second. And this passive antagonism, between illiberality on one side and apathy on the other, is the great stumbling-block that has checked the advance of sound and general education.

---

THE fossil remains of a gigantic bird, estimated to have stood 25 feet high, have been discovered in some beds of limestone at Nelson in New Zealand. The remains consist of a head, minus the lower jaw, the dimensions of which are three feet four inches by one foot ten inches, and a body, minus the neck. The thorax is highly developed, but rather flat; the tail long, and body bulky. The wings, which are well defined, are large and close to the body, and are separated by a saddle or cradle, very graceful in form; the feathers covering the body are of large size, and lying close.

## MRS. WEAZLE'S VISIT TO THE OPERA.

"WELL, yer see, Sary, I never wastes much time a-talkin', but I raly must tell yer about my visit ter the uproar last evenin'. Yer needn't stare so, Sary. I'm a-tellin' yer 'the truth as it is,' as our minister used ter say—very good minister he was, too. Yes, I had the extremest melicity of going ter a rale live uproar, as my Hezekiar ses, and it was an uproar shore enuf. Well, as I was a-tellin' yer, my Hezekiar cums hum last evenin', and ses he, 'Mother, was yer ever ter an uproar?' 'Why! lawful sakes, Hezekiar,' ses I, 'what's that?' 'Oh!' ses he, 'it's a place whar they have music, singin', and dancin', and if you'll go I'll take yer.' Well, Sary, I goes and wears my harnsum, black silk gown. Yer mind it, don't yer?"

"Oh! yes, mem, it's likely I do."

"Well, Sary, we walks on tell we cum ter a great big place, what looked like ter a hotel, but Hezekiar sed it warn't. 'Is this the place where they keeps the uproar?' says I. 'It won't break loose and hurt any person, I hope!' We was agoin' up the steps then, and Hezekiar didn't seem ter heer me, but I know'd I'd sed somethin' smart, for all the folks looked at me, greerish-like, and larfed."

"Well, Sary, if you had been thare you'd a-fainted rite away, bein' as you're not accustomed tu sich grand sites like I am. But what frustrated me most was, I couldn't see the uproar nowhere. I axed Hezekiar ef he thot she was sick. He sed: 'No; it wud commence arter awile.'"

"Well, then, a little bell tingled, and Hezekiar sed they was agoin to riz the curtin. Well, shore enuf, they did riz it, and a young woman cum out to dance. Well, persons seemed tu like that dancin' amazin'ly, and a young feller next ter me sed it was 'de-vine and in-ee-me-table.' Ses I to him: 'Young man, did yer swaller the dick-tion-nary afore ye cum'd heer?' Well, Sary, I know'd I'd sed somethin' smart, fur all the folks looked at me agen, and busted out a larfin; but Hezekiar didn't seem to like it, for he looked hard at me, and ses, 'Hush, mother.'"

"Well, the next thing, a man and woman cums out on the stage, and commences to sing in some outlandish furin tung that nobody couldn't understand, but the people seemed ter like it, and the young feller next ter me yells out, 'De-lite-fool! hex-squeeze-it!' Well, yer see, I nudged the young man, and ses I: 'Say, won't yer have a strawberry and a roasted chesnut to wash them are big words down?' Well, the young feller looked cheapish, and the folks commenced fur ter larf, but jest then Hezekiar rized up, and lookin' rale angry like, ses he, 'Mother, since yer keep the folks a larfin at yer all the time, I guess we'd better go hum.' 'Why, lawful sakes, Hezekiar,' ses I, 'it's pleasin ter me fur to heer folks larf so,' but Hezekiar wouldn't stay no longer, so I had ter cum away

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR was defined by the older of modern authors to be "the art of using the English language correctly." Later writers, believing that the word Art does not cover the whole ground which Grammar proposes to occupy, or that it savors a little too much of the mechanical for a subject which is to some extent speculative, have either abandoned the old definition, or materially altered it. Some have substituted the word science in place of art ; others, to be more definite, have called Grammar a science and an art. The reason for this change may be stated thus : Art, according to its modern acception, is used with reference to the practical application of established rules and formulas, and does not concern itself with the methods or sources from which they are obtained ; while science is used for that process which investigates principles, discovers facts, classifies the knowledge derived from these facts and principles, and enunciates it in rules and formulas. Hence art and science are complementary terms, both of which are necessary to the complete statement of every branch of speculative knowledge which has a practical application. For example, there is a science and an art of teaching. The science is that part of mental philosophy which discovers the processes by which the human mind receives knowledge, and may use that knowledge to secure the highest discipline of its mental faculties ; the art of teaching is such a presentation of knowledge that it may be readily grasped, and so directing discipline as to secure the highest intellectual development. Whateley, in his *Elements of Logic* (the definition of which has passed through a change similar to that of grammar,) states the question accurately. He says, "Logic may be considered as the science and the art of reasoning. It investigates the principles on which argumentation is conducted, and furnishes such rules as may be derived from these principles, for guarding against erroneous deductions. . . . For it is to be remembered that, as a science, it is conversant about speculative knowledge only ; and art is the application of knowledge to practice. Hence logic (as well as any other system of knowledge) becomes, when applied to practice, an art : while, confined to the theory of reasoning, it is strictly a science."\*

The reader has, doubtless, observed, in regard to several of the practical sciences, the propriety of calling them sciences has never been questioned ; in fact, we never think of calling them any thing else, while others are almost spoken of as arts. Thus we say the science of ethics, of theology, but the art of rhetoric and of grammar ; and yet one is as practical as the other, and no more so. The reason, or history rather, of this vexed anomaly, which has perplexed many a reader, is given by Sir William Hamil-

\* Introduction, §1.

ton substantially as follows :\* "The distinction dates back to the Aristotelic philosophy, and had its origin in certain distinctions in the Greek language, to which modern writers have not attended with proper care. The word *πρακτικός* (*praktikos*)=*practical*, denoted that action which terminated in action ; while *ποιητικός* (*poietikos*)=*productive*, denoted that action which resulted in some permanent product. Dancing and music are *practical*, as leaving no work after their performance ; painting and statuary are *productive*, as leaving some product over and above their energy. Aristotle defined art as a habit productive, and not as a habit practical ; and hence the word art came to be applied exclusively to those sciences whose end did not result in mere action or energy, but in a permanent product. Of the former class are ethics and theology ; of the latter, logic and grammar."

Modern writers have, therefore, called the practical sciences exclusively sciences, and the productive ones exclusively arts. But, notwithstanding the great antiquity of this distinction, in the sense in which the words science and art are at present used, there seems to be no valid objection to calling grammar a science as well as an art, but on the other hand much in favor of it. It not only gathers up and arranges the facts about which it is conversant, but it propounds its theories, investigates principles, and lays down rules ; in other words, it has a theoretical and speculative side as well as a practical one.

But grammar is the science and art of what ? Some say of language ; others, of using language correctly. So are lexicography and philology. Are these, then, parts of grammar ? Not as we usually understand it. Philology, of late, is fast taking rank as a separate science ; indeed, its most renowned professors claim for it a place among the physical sciences, as being governed by as certain and as ascertainable laws as mechanics or hydrostatics, while lexicography was long ago acknowledged as a separate department of knowledge. In fact, many of the latest grammars, while keeping up the old four-fold division of subjects, have abandoned the ground of orthography to the spelling-book and dictionary. But that of which grammar does treat is the *sentence* ; the modifications and arrangement of words which compose the sentence. Here it holds undisputed ground, and it is quite enough for successful occupancy. It has nothing to do with the elements of words—the letters—that is the business of the lexicographer. It simply takes the words as it finds them, marks their inflections, and observes the laws of their collocation. It has but little to do with punctuation. That is strictly the province of rhetoric. All that it need concern itself with here, is to note the marks which indicate the relation of the word in the sentence, and the parts of the sentence to each other. Versification also belongs to rhetoric. It makes no difference

\* Lectures on Metaphysics, American ed., p. 81 et passim.



with the grammatical relation of words whether they are arranged in poetic measure or not. A noun is a noun whether it be a trochee or spondee, or any other foot of a measure. Neither its gender, person, number, nor case is modified, whether it be in rhyme, blank verse, or prose. The lumbering up of a text-book, especially of *English Grammar*, with all these subjects is worse than folly. It only perplexes the teacher, discourages the learner, and makes the book more cumbersome and expensive. The sooner each separate department of knowledge becomes restricted to its particular sphere, the sooner may we expect to see real substantial progress. Grammar, then (if we may hazard a definition), is the science of the sentence, and the art of its construction. This may be liable to some objections, but we cannot at present think of any thing better; and it has at least this advantage, it defines the thing and excludes the what is foreign to the subject. As a science, it investigates the changes which words undergo in different relations, classifies those words, and lays down rules for their proper collocation. As an art, it is the application of those rules to the arrangement of words and their construction to the sentence. This presents a definite object which the learner can understand. His grammar is not at once a spelling-book, a dictionary, a grammar, and a rhetoric combined—a miscellaneous gathering—but a single subject which he feels that he can learn and understand. It is comprised under the two divisions of etymology (or some more appropriate name) and syntax. These are so intimately connected, so interdependent, that they obviously constitute but one science. By adhering to this course, we also take advantage of the well-known law of the division of labor. The subject is not only more intelligibly presented to the learner, but affords a more restricted topic of discussion to the author, and so insures a more complete and satisfactory treatment. For just so long as orthography and prosody are considered as parts of grammar, authors feel compelled to give them some show of attention. It is gratifying, however, to see that writers are making progress in this direction; for, whereas, these two parts used to occupy about one-third part of the whole book, now the most popular authors dispose of them in a few lines, or at most in a few pages.

---

HON. RUFUS CHOATE in an address once said: "Happy is he who has laid up in youth, and held steadfast in all fortune, a genuine and passionate love of reading; the true balm of hurt minds, of surer and more healthful charm than poppy or mandragora, or all the drowsy syrups of the world. By that single taste, by that simple capacity, he may be borne in a moment into the still regions of delightful study, and be at rest."

## EXAMINATION DAY AT MADAME SAVANTE'S.

MISS MAUDE MULLER, }  
 MISS ADA SINCLAIR, } *At study.*  
 MISS MAY MORTON, }

[Enter Miss KATE HIGHFLY.]

*Miss Highfly.* Here you are, at it again! What a set of book-worms you are! I did not come here to talk about books, however, but am in search of that brilliant luminary, Miss Amanda Malvina Spriggs. Ah, see, she comes!

[Enter Miss SPRIGGS, Miss ARRINGDALE, LUCY LAMMEERMOOR, E. PERCY.]

*Miss Spriggs.* What's coming—any thing for me? I say, Miss Maude Muller; what are you going to wear to the swarry?

*Maude Muller.* My best suit of manners, Miss Spriggs.

*E. Percy.* Wouldn't you like to borrow the pattern?

*Miss S.* No; I don't want none of your patterns. My par is rich enough to buy my clothes ready-made. I could dress like Queen Victoria if I wanted to.

*Kate H.* Wouldn't it be a striking likeness? There would be danger of your being mistaken for her daughter.

*Miss S.* I don't want to be taken for nobody. I'm as good as anybody; so is pap. I come here because I heard only the 'stocracy comed. I didn't keer much about it; 'twas better fun at home.

*Maude M.* You must be lonely among so many strangers?

*Miss S.* Not a bit of it; I'm used to seeing a great many folks. I went into company all last winter—balls, swarries, circuses, and all sorts of things. I didn't keer about coming away, but pap thought I'd better take music, and tend to painting, a spell, 'cause you know it's the fashion.

*Miss H.* I suppose, then, you have completed your studies?

*Miss S.* Yes; geography, grammar, and such like, I done up long ago. Pap says I know enough of 'em.

*Miss P.* But you have not studied mental philosophy, rhetoric, or astronomy?

*Miss S.* Nary one of 'em. I wouldn't be bothered with 'em. I'm a parlor boarder. Pap pays a great price for me, too.

[Enter MADAME.]

*Madame.* Young ladies, your time for recreation has expired; you will now prepare for the recitations of the day. The Greek and Hebrew classes will not recite, as Prof. Highscufflesneeki is suffering from temporary indisposition. You will hand in your Spanish, Italian, and French exercises for correction. The young ladies appointed to take charge of the laboratory will be prepared this afternoon to discuss electricity and to



illustrate the subject by the operation of the galvanic battery. Miss Lammermoor, Miss Sinclair, Miss Glorianna Gaston, Miss Arianna Arringdale, will approximate. Young ladies, I presume you are prepared with your demonstrations in conic sections. I am much gratified with the report of your diligence, handed me by Professor Parallelogram. I wish you to persevere unweariedly, as the next text-book will be *Newton's Principia*. Miss Glorianna Gaston, what is that secret bond which binds together those glorious orbs that circle round in illimitable space?

*Miss G.* Attraction of gravitation, madame.

*Mdme.* Miss Arringdale, by whom was attraction of gravitation discovered?

*Arianna Arringdale.* By Newton, madame.

*Mdme.* What do you understand by quadratic equations?

*Ada Sinclair.* Those involving the unknown power of the second quantity.

*Mdme.* You have great genius for transposition, Miss Sinclair. You may retire, young ladies. The class in ethnology, natural history, and sciences—(Miss Muller, Miss Highfly, Miss Percy, Miss England, Miss Morton.) You will be kind enough, Miss Highfly, to designate some of the natural sciences?

*Kate H.* Let's see. Them's ethnology, zoononomy, botony, goology, mineral-water-ology, longmeterology. Indeed, madame, I don't remember any more.

*Mdme.* The only wonder is, Miss Highfly, that you remember so many. You must have been spending your leisure hours in correcting the text-books. Miss Muller, let me see if you vie with your friend. Can you tell me some of the general forms and arrangements of leaves?

*Maude M.* Ovate, obovate, cuneate, sagittate, cordate, peltate, pinnate, and palmate, madame.

*Mdme.* Very creditable.

*Miss S.* Wonder why she couldn't keep on into the twelve times eight? Don't she know the rest of the multiplication table?

*Mdme.* Miss England, what are the five grand divisions into which mankind is divided?

*Miss E.* Caucasian, Mongolian, Malay, American, and Americans of African descent.

*Mdme.* Miss Morton, what are the great leading orders of fishes?

*Miss M.* Spine-rayed bony, soft-rayed bony, and cartilaginous.

*Mdme.* Perfectly correct, Miss Morton. Will you, Miss Percy, tell me what the third division of the second order is denominated?

*Miss P.* The apodal or footless division, madame.

*Mdme.* You will take up, in review, the second volume of Prof. Superficial's treatise on this subject. Miss Spriggs, I will ask you a few questions, in order to ascertain to what department I shall assign you.

*Miss S.* I hope it will be a good roomy apartment, with a big fire in it, ma'am.

*Mdme.* Miss Spriggs, I am accustomed to conversing with young ladies who deport themselves as such.

*Miss S.* Well, aint I? I always thought I was a lady.

*Mdme.* I will excuse you from further remarks. I perceive the preparatory will have a brilliant addition. Have you ever turned your attention to geography? If so, please to give me the capital city of each State.

*Miss S.* Well, if you wait till I kin give 'em to you, it will have to be till I can get pap to buy 'em for me. I brought a silver fork and spoon, and all them things; but I didn't think of them other consarns.

*Mdme.* Grant me patience! In what species shall I class this *rara avis*?

*Miss S.* Specie's mighty scarce, now, I tell you. I don't wonder you're puzzled.

*Mdme.* Miss Spriggs, what is arithmetic?

*Miss S.* 'Rethmetic! Well, I've heern tell of folks goin' on tick, and clock ticking; is't any of them kind you mean?

*Mdme.* Where were you educated, or rather where were you *not* educated, Miss Spriggs?

*Miss S.* You're too many for me, now. I come here to be eddicated 'long with the 'stocracy; and pap said as how I'd beat the whole com-boozle, and if there was any meddle to be given, I'd be sure to get it, for I was the most meddlesome gal he knowed.

*Mdme.* No more! Spare my nerves. You may retire to your apartment. I will consider your case.

*Miss S.* I guess I am a case. Pap says I'm the hardest kind of a case, but he guessed *you* could squelch me. Well, good-by, ma'am, and when you want me again jist let me know.

*Mdme.* Pity the sorrows of a preceptress! What a parody on the march of intellect, when capacities are supposed to be in the market; when the substitute for Pegasus is to be greenbacks, and the road to Parnassus can be reached only by a "carriage and four!"

---

THE MEMORY OF A MOTHER.—When temptation assails, and when we are almost persuaded to do wrong, how often a mother's word of warning will call to mind vows that are rarely broken! Yes, the memory of a mother has saved many a poor wretch from going astray. Tall grass may be growing over the hallowed spot where her earthly remains repose; the dying leaves of autumn may be whirled over them, or the white mantle of winter may cover them from sight; yet her spirit appears when he walks in the right path, and gently, softly, mournfully calls to him when wandering off into the ways of error.

## AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

AUGUST, 1866.

---

### VACATION.

**W**ELCOME is vacation to all ! And thrice welcome to the teacher ! In the long weeks of the early summer he has been looking longingly forward to his release from the badly ventilated school-room and the peculiar anxieties of his calling. Now, divested of pedagogical restraint and dignity, he is free to enjoy the broad fields and the free pure air of the country. He is free to renew his youth in the careless ease and jolly good-humor of his home and early associations.

Vacation is a blessed compensation for work and worry, toil and care. In spite of years, it tends to make children of us. We may not turn somersaults on the green ; or swing our hats in air, with merry shouts and loud huzzas ; or roll, like young colts, in the soft meadow-grass ; or leap the garden fence at a bound ; or turn our jackets inside out ; or jump out of our boots to paddle, barefoot, down the stream. Yet, nevertheless, we are sometimes children again. Vacation calls up this childhood within us, and transforms us, for the time, into lads and lasses.

We gladly rise from our time-worn seats, shake the professional dust from our garments, and seek the velvet meadow and the rugged mountain. We pluck the wild daisy, recline under the wide-spreading tree, listening to the rippling stream and the music of the birds. We watch the flocks upon the hill-side, and delight our vision in the brood that sails upon the stream. We pat Rover on the head, and extend a handful of fragrant clover to meek-eyed Brindle. To all these vacation lures us, "pilgrims weary with the march of life."

Verily, vacation is the teacher's honeymoon of life. It mollifies the temper that has been ruffled by the friction of school machinery. Friction is inevitable. For school boys and girls are no exceptions to the general degeneracy of the race. Children are not born angels, and we often find perversity and deformity in place of wings. It is well for us to contemplate the freshness and beauty, the innocence and purity of childhood. It is pleasant to teach the "young idea how to shoot ;" but when the twig has a constitutional tendency to twist in its growth and run into knots, it is not so easy to rear it to comely proportions. It is inspiring

to teach where there is a desire to learn ; but attempts to force knowledge through thickened skulls into empty craniums is hard and dogged work. To command the lively attention of those hungry for the crumbs of knowledge is pleasant employment ; but when pupils prefer peanuts to geography and doughnuts to mathematics, teaching is not so very delectable after all. It is satisfactory to mark progress in wisdom, and to watch the unfolding of mind ; but it is not particularly inspiring to discover that your pupil is more eager for a surreptitious bite at an apple, or a "dig" at the ribs of his companion, than for an honorable position at the head of his class. However, whatever may be the pros and cons of "school-keeping," VACATION is a blessed "institution" for the teacher.

Nor is vacation less appreciated by the student. What boarding-school miss, or what collegian—be he verdant freshman, wise sophomore, conservative junior, or reverend senior—but has impatiently counted over and over again the days which preceded vacation. His vacation brings with it the gentle embraces of his mother, more esteemed by him than medals of gold or wreaths of laurel, with all his "college honors."

To all classes and conditions of men, vacation brings grateful relief. It relaxes the lawyer's "tape," and allows him perchance a trip to Saratoga, or Newport, or Long Branch, to make the acquaintance of his wife and family. Sometimes it entices the poor metropolitan editor from his "easy (!) chair," and gives him permission to have and to utter "opinions of his own." The editor of the MONTHLY, even, may be able to enjoy his clam chowder and blue-fish at Fire Island beach.

May this vacation indeed be a happy one for us all ; and may we all take in a good stock of new life and strength, to conduct successfully our next campaign against ignorance. May none have occasion to say that the realization of the pleasures of vacation is less than the anticipation.

---

#### THE SOCIAL STANDING OF TEACHERS.

A CONTRIBUTOR to the present number of the MONTHLY, in an interesting paper on the Teacher's Profession, assumes that the social standing of teachers is low—unjustly low ; that there exists in the common mind a feeling of contempt for the profession, which, outweighing the influence of the teacher's personal worth, condemns him to neglect and contumely, simply because he is a teacher. This opinion is by no means uncommon ; nor is it without some shadow of plausibility. Still, we

believe it to be unfounded in fact, and unjust both to the profession and to the public. We do not believe that a teacher's certificate is a passport to obloquy; nor that teachers are ever socially disparaged on account of their calling.

On the contrary, the social prejudice, if prejudice it may be called, is in the teacher's favor, rather than against him. In most circles, the simple fact that a man is a teacher is sufficient to insure him a kindly reception. He is presumed to be a gentleman if not a scholar, and as such he is treated so long as his own actions do not prove him unworthy. If he fails to receive the respect due to his calling—and surely no calling is more respectable—the fault, in nine cases out of ten, is his own; and we do wrong to hold the entire profession responsible for the contempt which is justly felt for its unworthy members. With the better and perhaps larger portion of our people, no profession is more highly honored, theoretically at least, than teaching; and if honor is not practically rendered to individual teachers, they must look to themselves for the remedy.

We would not deny that there are, in almost every place, some who look upon the man who trains their children somewhat as they do upon the man who drives their horses, and who would be as likely to welcome to the "fashionable drawing-room" the one as the other. But this is not surprising, and the teacher who takes to heart the slights of such people is unworthy the name of teacher. Those with whom a man's social position is determined, not by his personal worth and use as a citizen, but by the condition of his bank account or the amount of his income tax, cannot be expected to reverse their standard of respectability in compliment to a profession with the merits of which they are but little acquainted. They look down upon the teacher, not because he is a teacher, but because he is poor.

Though we must admit that every community contains too large a proportion of those who make worth subservient to wealth, we feel that it is an insult to the good sense of our people, as a whole, to claim that they are so unjust and unwise as to condemn the votaries of the noblest profession, simply from an unfounded contempt for the profession. In fact, we would sooner take the opposite ground, and hold that the popular appreciation of the teacher's labors is so high as to lead oftener to an overestimate than to a disparagement of teachers, and to blind the public vision to the pretentious ignorance of thousands who assume, without just preparation, the teacher's responsible duties.

## EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

DRESDEN, June, 1866.

AS the time for writing my monthly letter comes round, it always brings with it the regret that my engagements press so constantly upon me that I cannot gain leisure for that close examination of the schools which might yield the best material for a series of educational letters. And yet there is this compensation for the loss, that the more I have seen of German schools, the more fully I am convinced that it is true that in no important respect do they maintain any superiority over our own. It is hardly necessary to tell the reader that the Free School system, as we understand the word, does not exist here; though many of the schools are under the control of the State, yet they are no more *free*, in the American use of the word, than is Harvard College or Michigan University. The gymnasia, the real schools, the tradesmen's schools, the industrial schools, the kindergartens, are all sustained as are our American academies and private schools, though they are almost all under the direction of the State. The class system, the most marked feature of society here, is not lost sight of among the children and youth. The nobility regard it as work of condescension when they send their sons to the gymnasium, even although it be presided over by teachers of lifelong experience, of extensive learning, and of even European reputation. The poor man may, by the greatest effort and constant sacrifice, be able to command the means to educate his boy in one of the higher schools, but few lads are willing to incur the scorn and contempt which poverty or a "low station" incur. A school such as ours, where all sit together, where the son of a senator may be on the same bench, is on the same form with the son of a blacksmith, is not known in Germany. It contemplates a state of society which is utterly unknown here. When the "State schools" of this country are spoken of, it is only meant they are under the control of the government, the teachers chosen and their salaries allotted by the state, but nothing of freedom is meant. Every father pays fees for the instruction of his children. Nor are these fees light. There lies on my table, as I write these lines, the prospectus of one of the Dresden schools. You would suppose that in this country, where wages are not on the whole more than one-third as high as they are with us, the prices of tuition would be correspondingly low. But they are not so. I give the terms reckoned in American gold. Children, from three to six, attending the kindergarten department, pay \$1.12 monthly; those from six to eight pay \$1.50; those from eight to twelve pay \$1.87; and those above twelve pay \$2.25. To this sum must be added a slight entrance fee and a special tax for warming the rooms. A family of three or four children must cost the father for tuition alone at least \$50 a year; and when to this is added the book bill, the sum is not a light one for a poor man to pay. Now, fifty dollars seems a small bill compared with the sums paid in Boston, New York, and Brooklyn; but it may be, and often is, far more out of proportion to the means of the parents here than the terms charged in our private schools. Many of the fathers sending to this school of which I write are public officials, clergymen, or teachers. Their income is not much more, as a general rule, than two-thirds what the same class of men would receive in the United States.



The introduction of the free-school system would be the greatest possible boon to them ; but it is not possible that it can be done as long as the class distinction breaks society up into castes as inflexible as those of the East. But, it may be asked by the reader, are there no free schools in Germany ? Does not the government provide for the education of the poor ? Yes, it does ; but how ? It gives, to those who are too poor to pay tuition, schools of commensurate pretensions. It provides small back rooms, unventilated of course, and in squalid neighborhoods ; it places over them teachers of miserable education, in many cases even speaking impure German, and in no way capable of imparting valuable instruction to the pupils ; and this is all. Such a magnificent system as ours, which is more sedulous for the education of the poor man's sons than of the rich man's, has never been dreamed of here. Our school system, I feel it more and more, is the glory of America ; it is the corner-stone of our prosperity ; it is the pillar on which our future hopes depend. This is a truism, but its verity is less a common-place when pronounced in Europe than when uttered in America. I would not exchange this single organic element, the freedom of our schools, for ten times the proficiency in classical Latin and Greek which is given in a German gymnasium.

And here I touch upon a point which wants a little further expansion. We often hear the "thoroughness" attained in the German schools held up to an unchallenged approbation. So far as just two studies are concerned, it is no doubt true ; but beyond that, it does not seem to me to be so. Owing to the great prominence given in the Universities to the languages of ancient Greece and Rome, the German teachers are far better fitted to impart instruction in the former literature of these two lands than our American teachers are ; but there we have to stop. The modern languages, the sciences, metaphysics, and general history are, on the whole, better taught in America than here. In the last-named study but one, there is no comparison between the relative degree of advancement reached in the two countries. Go into any school and listen to the reading, the mathematical, geographical, and historical exercises, and you will give the preference to the exercises of the American schools. Our school-houses are not more superior to theirs than are the teachers whom we employ, and the excellence of the methods employed. And the reason is not hard to find. In Germany, men press eagerly into the ranks of teachers because it gives them a good position, a sure living, and much leisure. They will "do better" in this calling than in any handicraft which they might adopt. But it is not so with us. The American teacher has an assured position in society it is true, but his income is often not so great as that of the carpenter or the wheelwright. He, as well as the clergyman, takes his place at a pecuniary sacrifice. Such a test will always call out the best men. It is because the love of the calling is stronger than the love of money that makes our American teachers and clergymen the first in the world, the most efficient, and the least perfunctory. Once in a while the true ring comes out here, but it is not frequent. I remember a letter of Carl Ritter's, written before his appointment as Professor at Berlin, and while he was considering whether he should accept an invitation to be Pestalozzi's successor in Switzerland, in which he says that while he should like to live on the banks of the Rhine best, yet that for the sake of the rising generation he could go to the

world's end. If one saw more of this spirit in Germany, there would be more of that enthusiasm which animates American teachers, and far less of that mere professional spirit which is so marked in this Old World.

There is one feature in the German school-system which awakened the special admiration of Horace Mann, and which made him so urgent that we should model our schools on the European pattern. It was the method of imparting religious instruction. I am not familiar enough with his writings or his recently published biography to cite his opinions, or to attempt to show that they were rightly or wrongly based; but, speaking independently, I confess that religion does come into the foreground here, as all well-wishers to the Christian religion might wish it to do at home. And yet it is not possible, at the present day certainly, that it should be in America as in Germany, for here the state church is the symbol of a unity in religious matters of which we know nothing. Not that there is any real unity, but there is no outward mark of dissent, and the church machinery can be coerced by the State authorities, so far as to prescribe the use of certain manuals of religious instruction, and make it incumbent on every teacher to question his pupils from them. It is true these are not such books as our Sunday-school societies publish; they confine themselves usually to the undisputed facts of Bible history, they can be accepted alike by the believer and the rationalist; but they do give an acquaintance with the Bible as a classic and as a historical work, which is rarely equalled by the scholars of our Sunday-schools. It may be said, and will be said by many good and earnest people, that all this is nothing; that without the enforcement of Gospel truths, the most extended familiarity with Biblical history, antiquities and geography must pass as nothing. But so it does not seem to me; the pupils do not remain in heathenish ignorance of Bible facts; they have a good foundation on which the clergyman and the parents may build; and with faithful supplementary instruction there is no reason why the German youth should not become eminent in piety. If they do not do so, it is not because the system is faulty in the schools, but defective out of them; not because school teachers fail in their part, but because pastors and parents fail in theirs. So far as I am familiar with Mr. Mann's opinions, these were that the German system could be introduced into the United States; but, in the present clashing state of the various religious sects, it does not seem to me that such an event is possible. The most that we can hope for is unity in ethical principles, and that unity seems to be a consummated fact. Taking things as they are, with due allowance for the great efficiency and the immense compass of our Sunday-schools, there is little that is wanting, even morally and religiously, in our American schools. And yet there is a little that could be supplied without calling down any harsh criticisms. There is no church which could or would criticize the introduction of Biblical geography as a department of study; and yet this is one of the things in which American youths are the lamest. When we reflect that American scholars have done more towards the forwarding of this department than those of any other land, and when we reflect also on the many excellencies of our Sunday-schools, it is indeed surprising that we suffer our children to be so ignorant as we do of the simplest elements of Biblical geography.

Turning from this subject, let me allude to an error exceedingly preva-



lent in this country—namely, that, because America is the “New World,” every thing is there rude, unsettled, unformed. It was brought out not long ago in a conversation with a distinguished teacher. He had taken me over his school-house, which was new, and really excellent for Germany, but by no means comparable to one which we should have in America, in a city of the same size. The grade of the institution compared to that which we call a “high-school,” and yet there was no arrangement for ventilating the rooms, the seats were rude backwoods benches, the walls were very bare, and the whole appearance of the building would be inferior in American eyes. Still, as I said, it was an excellent house, for a German one. The teacher regarded the building and its appointments with conscious pride. After we had inspected the whole building, he turned and said, “Well, how do you like it?” “Very well,” I said, “very well, it is a good house; it must be one of the best in the country.” “Yes, it is,” he answered, with increased exultation; and by and by, if your country goes on, you will be able to have school-houses as large and good as this.” I thought it high time to undeceive him, if he thought that America needed any such sympathetic pity as that implied, so I answered him quietly: “Oh, I wasn’t comparing this house with those in America; but since you seem to think that we are behind you in this respect, I ought to tell you, that in a city as large as this such a house would be reckoned second or third rate. Nowhere in Europe are the schools so palatial as in the United States.” He regarded me with a look as if of inquiry whether on this particular subject I might not be a little insane, and then went on to say, with the utmost nonchalance: “Oh, we don’t expect much of America as yet; you have a new country; by and by you will, no doubt, be able to have every thing as fine as we have in Europe.” That was a little too cool; but there was no use in going off in a passion, and so I took him up at the words “you have a new country,” and spoke a little more at length. I asked him whether, when neighbors and friends of his took all their children and goods, and put them in a boat and crossed over to the other side of the river, built a house and began to reclaim land, it was necessary to presuppose that they reduce themselves to the level of savages, and must build up their civilization *de novo*? And would it make any special difference in the principle involved whether the journey across consumed ten minutes or a month? After getting that point settled, I showed him, or attempted to do so, that in all respects England is now, and has been for centuries, just about a century in advance of Germany in all that constitutes the comforts of civilization,—a country without carpets and easy-chairs, without water-pipes and decent beds, without cooking stoves and ventilators, without an art of cookery, and without newspapers (so far as the body of the population is concerned)—a country where all that exists, which is not of French or English origin, carries us back to greater rudeness than has been known in England for a hundred years, as I took special pains to show this eminent teacher. That point being settled, I asked him how he would demonstrate, that if English people, who, two hundred years ago, were more than a century in advance of the Germans, moved their effects to America, and took all their culture and civilization with them, we could be spoken of as a “new country,” and the hope expressed about us, that by and by we might enjoy all the advantages of the

Old World. It was a good earnest "talk," and I trust will not be forgotten, as it was received without a particle of ill-nature. I cite it here merely because it illustrates one phase of German opinions about the New World. Other men are wiser, and know how to measure us. Every year there is a better knowledge of America and its institutions; but much remains to be taught yet. We hear a good deal about German ignorance of American geography, but I wish that this were the worst of their sins concerning us. Notwithstanding the intelligent books written about America, and the great influence of such papers as the *Leipsig Illustrated News*, the darkness which rests upon Germany is very great. But one of the radical reasons why we have been so much misunderstood is the one hinted in the above conversation, that, as we are a "new country," we have not yet risen above the mists of barbarism and the estate of savagery.

W. L. G.

---

#### A SUMMER LETTER.

MR. EDITOR—One day last week I went to the Academy. It is at the north end of a large common, part of which is adorned by numerous shade-trees, well-grown and various. Think of the loveliest knoll in the Central Park ramble, and imagine, in place of the picturesque arbor there, an old two-story white building, with green blinds, a huge door-stone, and a somewhat imposing belfry. That is the outside of our Academy. I counted twenty-five pupils, little boys and girls, boys and girls "of a larger growth," several young ladies, and one veteran who served three whole years in the 18th Conn. Infantry, and is now just nineteen. As soon as he was mustered out, he announced his intention of resuming his studies. An acquaintance of his said to one of the teachers: "He is so bashful, I hope you will give him a desk by the wall, so that he can look one way without seeing girls." But they say he never looks that way! Alexander Hamilton said: "If I must have a master, give me one with epaulettes; somebody that I can look up to and respect, and not a master with a quill behind his ear." If all soldiers have that feeling when they return to private life, it must have been a hard thing for this young veteran to fall in under feminine command in the ranks of a summer school. He hesitated a few days, and then said that he may sometime be so situated that it will be of more importance to him that he has the knowledge he will gain this summer than under what circumstances he has obtained it. I noticed him during the opening exercises. He recited his Bible verse as sweetly as the youngest in the room. Just before recess a list of names was read, including the veteran's, for the game of croquet. The arches stand on the common, and in pleasant weather there is a long recess every forenoon for those pupils who have not whispered. On this occasion, as the others were selecting their mallets, the veteran said to a teacher near him: "I forfeited my privilege a few minutes ago." So a substitute took his mallet. He, meanwhile, reopened his *Natural Philosophy*, and was soon working on his slate a problem of two locomotives; how they would compare in velocity, momentum, and striking force. The

day was intensely hot, and the croquet players came in almost as damp as if they had all "gone up Salt River" by literal swimming, instead of the figure of speech peculiar to their game. At noon the pupils lunched and chatted under the Lombardy poplars. Nothing else afforded shade dense enough for such a day. When the bell rang, nobody wanted to come in. And it was so arranged that some of the lessons were recited out doors that day. When the afternoon recess was over, all came to order as they would in the school-room, but remained in the shade of the poplars. The veteran looked as if he thought it a pleasant encampment. Warm weather for school, most certainly; but not too warm for singing. "Music in the air" sounded all the better, because the air was not confined by walls and doors.

The hour had come for the botany class. A small boy passed round some potato blossoms, which were analyzed by acclamation. We then considered other nightshades and other tubers, till the pupils were invited to re-enter the Academy for such recitations as could not so well be conducted out-doors. After the school had been dismissed, we read to each other till the lengthening shadows had covered the croquet ground. How did people ever entertain their summer visitors before croquet was invented? It was not played by school-children this time—not exactly. A number of old maids had been invited to come over sometime and try the new game. And they all happened to come at once. A bystander remarked that they played slowly. Another said it was because they hadn't played any thing since they were children, and that was so long ago! There was a little confusion sometimes; for instance, when the call was "Gray! Gray!" it was necessary to notice that it meant the lady with the gray mallet, and not the one with the gray hair. But I don't believe the Dutchmen that Rip Van Winkle saw playing ninepins had half as good a time as these worthy Yankee women in their first game of croquet.

On taking leave of the Academy and its grounds, I congratulated the principal upon the pleasant and orderly appearance of her young people. She said: "The art of government has always seemed to me to have its difficulties. I have heard of parents going to hear Mr. Rarey lecture upon horses, in order to learn how to control their children. For myself, I never had that privilege. But I obtained one hint from reading how a man once managed his dog. He had him in a boat with a friend, who laughed incredulously when he boasted of the dog's obedient habits. At last he offered his friend a wager that the dog would instantly do the first three things he might ask of him. The wager was accepted; whereupon the master threw him overboard, and said: 'Swim, Major, swim!' Major swam till he reached shallow water. Then his master called out: 'Wade, Major, wade!' Major waded till he came to the shore. Then his master shouted: 'Shake yourself, Major, shake yourself!' Major shook himself. So I say to my boys and girls: 'Go out doors!' and they go. When I see that this order is promptly and pleasantly obeyed, I say: 'Play croquet!' and they play. And when it is too hot to play any longer, I say: 'Sit in the shade!' and in the shade they sit."

Rosa.

## EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

## NEW ENGLAND STATES.

**MAINE.**—The Bowdoin College memorial hall will be built of granite, will be two stories high, and in the form of a Greek cross. It will cost \$35,000, of which \$20,000 have been already subscribed.

—Charles Bennet, of Brunswick, whipped a school-boy lately, and on complaint the case was carried into court. Thirty-eight citizens of the place now come forward with an address, affirming their great confidence in Mr. Bennet as a man and a teacher, and present him a purse of fifty dollars toward defraying the expenses of the trial.

**NEW HAMPSHIRE.**—The trustees and friends of the educational institute at New London have voted to raise \$100,000, with which to construct new buildings and provide for other wants of the institution. \$40,000 have been procured.

**MASSACHUSETTS.**—In consequence of the injunction which has been issued, forbidding the payment of the \$75,000 pledged by the people of Amherst toward the erection of proper buildings for the State Agricultural College at Amherst, it is stated that an effort will be made upon the assembling of the next Legislature to obtain a repeal of the law which provides that the town in which the college is located must furnish \$75,000, and to have an act passed that the whole expense be borne by the State. The grounds upon which the injunction was issued are, that the act is unconstitutional, and that it amounts to the relief of individuals from their private debts and forces them upon the town. It is also stated that unless the trustees receive the money before long, they will sell the farm purchased for the college, and locate it elsewhere.

—During the year ending April 1st, 1866, one hundred and sixty-one pupils were received into the State Reform School, and at that date two hundred and forty-eight remained on the list. The receipts were \$36,551.09, and the expenditures \$36,434.57. The trustees ask \$5,000 from the Legislature for repairs and improvements, and urge the appointment of a committee to examine the affairs of the school and the necessity for enlargement.

**CONNECTICUT.**—The school-fund amounts to \$2,048,532.23, \$252,836 having been added last year. The revenue received during the year was \$186,471.94, and dividends amounting to \$140,816.70 were distributed to the various school-districts. The lands given by Congress for support of an agricultural college were sold for \$135,000, and the money has been invested in bonds of

the State. The income from this fund is payable to Yale College, that institution having complied with the requirements specified in the act of Congress. The income for last year was \$7,551.26. The number of children attending school last year was 118,780, and the *per cap.* dividend was \$1.10. The revenue of the fund will be lessened by the recent laws of the State, which compel the commissioner to sell, at par, the bank-stocks which were paying ten per cent. dividends, and to invest the proceeds in State bonds, which pay but six per centum.

—The New Haven Board of Education have voted to exclude colored children from the public schools.

## MIDDLE STATES.

**NEW JERSEY.**—The recent examinations and commencement exercises of Rutgers College disclose a most decided progress in the status of that time-honored institution. The indomitable zeal and ability of President Campbell is telling upon its prosperity. The Faculty are, without exception, *live* men, distinguished in their several departments of instruction. Two new professors have just been elected—Professor Cooper, of Danville, Kentucky, for the Greek chair, and Captain Kellogg, of the United States Army, for Civil Engineering and Military Tactics. The course of study is being continually improved, and students there are required to work. The increased size of the classes proves the growing estimate in which this college is held. One of the members of this year's graduating class, Mr. E. A. Appgar, was elected, some months before his graduation, to the high position of 'Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of New Jersey.' This case is without parallel, and speaks well for Rutgers College, and for New Jersey. During the year a well-furnished observatory has been erected. An Alumni Hall is in contemplation, and the Rutgers Chapter of the famous Delta Phi Fraternity, have taken steps for the erection of a Delta Phi Hall.

—From the annual report of Mr. Sears, the City Superintendent of Schools in Newark, it appears that last year the whole number of pupils in attendance during the year was nearly twelve thousand (11,945), being a considerable increase over that of the previous year. The average daily attendance was 85.5 per cent., or a little more than two per cent. better than during the year 1864. The per centage of attendance in the different grades of schools, and which is believed will compare favorably with that of schools of like grades in any city in the country, was as follows: High School, 89.1 per

cent.; Grammar Schools, 87.5 per cent.; Primary Schools, 85.9 per cent.; Colored Schools, 67; Industrial Schools, 67. In the High School the whole number enrolled during the year was three hundred and ninety-nine—an increase over the previous year; the average number enrolled in the male department having been eleven greater than during the year 1864, and in the female department twelve greater.

During the period of eleven years which has elapsed since the opening of this school, the number of pupils admitted has been as follows:

Pupils in the male department, 1,084.  
Pupils in the female department, 1,117;  
making a total number of 2,191.

For the maintenance of the system during the year there was expended the sum of \$81,822.71—making an average cost of tuition per pupil, excluding the Normal and Evening Schools, and including teachers' wages, fuel, books, insurance, rents of the Primary School-rooms, and incidentals—of only \$12.38 per annum.

**PENNSYLVANIA.**—The Hicksite branch of the Society of Friends at Philadelphia are erecting a spacious college at Westdale, for the education of their own children. It will cost \$200,000.

—The family of Mr. Crozier, of Chester, have given in trust to the Baptist Publication Society \$50,000 as a missionary memorial for the literary and theological instruction of freedmen by means of books and missionaries.

—Last summer Hon. Asa Packer, of Mauch Chunk, donated \$500,000 toward building and endowing an institution to be located at Bethlehem. Preparations for erecting the building are in progress. When finished it will present a front of two hundred feet, and, if the expectations of its projectors should be realized, will be the finest building in Pennsylvania.

#### WESTERN STATES.

**OHIO.**—The Board of Education of Cincinnati have raised the salaries of teachers in the public schools of that city ten per cent.

—The total attendance this year at Oberlin College is seven hundred and seventy, of which four hundred and twenty-five are gentlemen. Of the whole number two hundred and sixty-one are new students. Last term a new Ladies' Boarding Hall opened with rooms for one hundred ladies, and table accommodations for a like number of gentlemen in addition. The building is handsomely finished, containing parlors, reception-room, library, and society-room. An effort is being made to raise \$150,000 to complete the endowment and to erect two new buildings, one for recitation-room and one for philosophical-room, laboratory, and museum. Over \$20,000 are

already secured. The prospects of the college were never more promising. General G. W. Shurtliff, late tutor, has been made Associate-Professor of Language. In September, Judson Smith, A.M., a former tutor in Oberlin, now teacher of mental philosophy and mathematics in Williston Seminary, Mass., will return to Oberlin as Professor of Latin Language and Literature.

—The students of the Ohio Wesleyan University, at Delaware, Ohio, have given to the college an aggregate subscription of \$10,200, and hope to increase the amount. As few of the students are wealthy, the subscription is extraordinary, and the individual contributions in some cases amount actually to a mortgage on future labor for several years. The alumni of this institution have begun the endowment of a chair, and their subscription already amounts to \$6,000. The faculty have subscribed \$2,600, or more than twenty per cent. of their entire salary for a year.

**INDIANA.**—The school-fund amounts to \$7,613,490.36. All unclaimed fees in the hands of sheriffs or justices of the peace, fines for penal offences, forfeitures of bail, escheated estates, and moneys found on unknown dead persons are paid into this fund. The amount of common revenue apportioned in April was \$1,004,287.49 for 552,244 children between the ages of six and twenty-one years.

—The State Normal School is to be located at Terre Haute. The appropriation for building is \$50,000, besides the grounds worth \$25,000. The foundation will be laid during the coming autumn, and the Normal School Board hope to open the institution in the autumn of 1867.

—Indianapolis has ten schools, with 2,851 pupils; average attendance, ninety-three per cent. The teachers' salaries range from \$375 to \$1,200; the superintendent receives \$1,500.

—Vincennes has nine teachers, with five hundred and ninety pupils. The teachers' wages for the year ending April 1st, 1866, amounted to \$2,170.

—The faculty and students of Indiana Asbury University have pledged \$6,500 as a centenary offering to the institution.

—The National Convention of State, County, and City Superintendents will be held in Indianapolis on the 18th of this month. At the same place the Convention of normal Professors and Teachers will be held on the 14th instant, and on 15th, 16th, and 17th inst. the National Teachers' convention.

**ILLINOIS.**—Flavel Moseley, a native of Hampton, Connecticut, who died recently at Chicago, bequeathed \$10,000 for a "Moseley Public School Book Fund," \$10,000 to mission-schools, and \$20,000 to the "Chicago Home for the Friendless."

**CALIFORNIA.**—The school session for children under eight years of age is, by a recent change, limited to four hours per day.

—The San Francisco Board of Education are making strenuous efforts to accommodate the city children. Since April 1st 586 pupils have been admitted, making the total amount at present 2,414.

#### SOUTHERN STATES.

**MARYLAND.**—The number of pupils now in the Baltimore Manual Labor School is thirty-seven. The average number in attendance during the past year was fifty. The building is capable of accommodating one hundred, but the funds of the institution do not authorize such an increase in the number of pupils. The school is supported by public contributions.

**VIRGINIA.**—At Richmond there is now a free school for whites, the only one in the State. It is modelled after the grammar-schools of New York and Boston, and includes a school for boys, a school for girls, and a mixed school for beginners of both sexes. The boys' school contains seventy-eight pupils, and is under the charge of Miss M. J. Miles, of Waltham, Mass.; the girls' school, Miss S. E. Foster, of Waltham, teacher, has seventy-six pupils; and the primary department, under Mr. Hovey and Miss C. R. Thorp, of Philadelphia, is attended by two hundred and twenty-five pupils. The schools are filled to repletion, and numerous applications for admission are made daily.

—The prospects of Washington College, under the direction of General Lee, are very cheering. The endowment has been raised to \$145,000, and it will soon be further increased. The number of students is one hundred and forty.

—The University of Virginia is said to be in a very flourishing condition, and two hundred and fifty-eight students are in attendance. At a recent meeting of the Trustees of Hampden Sidney College, Colonel B. S. Ewell, President of William and Mary College, was chosen to fill the chair of mathematics.

**DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.**—The series of school-readers used in the public schools of Washington being an abolition publication, in that it contains Mr. Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg, an effort is being made to have it thrown out and to introduce a series prepared for the Southern market, with careful omission of all reference to the recent war.

**SOUTH CAROLINA.**—Two of the Episcopal churches of Charleston are making a united movement for educating colored children, and already have six hundred scholars under their care.

**ALABAMA.**—Freedmen's schools are in

successful operation in fifteen large cities, and are attended by more than 10,500 pupils. In some of the white churches colored children are taught under the superintendency of the pastors. At Demopolis the citizens have contributed of their funds to aid in the erection of a school-house for colored people. The mayor of Tuskegee is said to have charge of a large Sunday-school for blacks.

#### FOREIGN.

**CANADA—UPPER.**—The lists of McGill University show that there are in all nine hundred and thirty-six persons directly receiving instruction at the University; of these three hundred and six are entered in the faculties of law, medicine, and arts. At its late convocation sixty-six gentlemen were graduated. Victoria University has two hundred and eighty-two students. The matriculation and university courses have been somewhat extended. Forty-eight gentlemen have just been graduated.

**ENGLAND.**—Trinity College has fallen heir to between \$300,000 and \$350,000, under the will of Dr. Whewell, the late master. It is to make provision for the establishment of a professorship of international law in the University. The appointment of the Rev. William H. Thompson, M. A., as Master of Trinity College, is gazetted.

—The great schools are thus compared: At Eton, 82 masters teach 804 boys; at Winchester, 12 teach 200; at Westminster, 9 teach 136; at Harrow, 22 teach 481; at Rugby, 19 teach 463.

—Mr. Spurgeon's college in London for raising up preachers seems to have become a fixed institution. Already about one hundred and twenty have gone out from it and entered upon their work in various parts of England, and the number of those now in preparation is nearly one hundred. Regarded as a system of intellectual education, the training here afforded is brief and superficial. The aim, however, is only to take men of peculiar gifts and to prepare them for extemporaneous preaching.

—The Liverpool corporation schools educate two thousand one hundred and fifty children at a cost of \$2,300 per annum.

—The educational report, presented to the Prefect of the Seine by the French commission, contains this passage: "The Universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, neither possess the aristocratic character of the English universities, nor impart equally solid instruction. The reason is, that most of the students belong to the middle or humbler classes, and come up to the university after hasty and very imperfect preparatory studies.

—The number of new entrants into the Scotch Training Colleges exhibits a slight falling off as compared with the last year.



The most noticeable feature is the very large increase among those who have not been pupil-teachers.

**FRANCE.**—Formerly only those books which had been sanctioned by the authorities might be used in the National Schools: now, if the consent of the rector or academic head of the district be previously obtained, teachers may introduce any book which has not been expressly forbidden.

—With a population of 40,000,000, France expends only \$1,400,000 on primary schools, while the State of New York, with less than 4,000,000 inhabitants, expends \$4,400,000. In France many excellent teachers receive only \$80 per annum. It is not surprising, then, that the government reports 884,000 children between seven and thirteen years of age as receiving no instruction whatever. The number of illiterate persons is estimated by educational journals to be not less than 2,500,000. In view of this fact, they urge the establishment of adult classes, as far as possible.

—A prize of four hundred francs is offered by the Educational Society of Lyons for an essay to determine how far the want of success in children's education is due to their parents, and how far to the schoolmaster. The essays may be written in any language.

—Next year the French Academy will celebrate its two hundredth anniversary.

**ITALY.**—At the suggestion of M. Berti, the new Minister of Public Instruction, a National School Society has been formed. Its object is to promote popular instruction by training teachers, male and female, by contributing toward the erection of new schools, by aiding intelligent teachers and awarding prizes to those who achieve eminent success, by publishing books for the people, and by founding educational museums, school-libraries, and libraries for the people. To encourage local liberality, it is declared that two-thirds of all local contributions shall be spent on schools of the locality; and that of the remaining third, one-half shall be disposed of by the provincial committee to which the locality may belong, and the other half remitted to the central committee sitting in the capital. This central committee is to select books for publication, to publish a journal, and to appoint inspectors of the society's schools. Means are to be taken to render diplomas, granted to teachers by this society, of equal legal effect with those granted by the state.

**PRUSSIA.**—In this kingdom there are about two hundred and twenty-five Reformatory Institutions in successful operation. Nearly all have been established since 1848, and a large number are in charge of Brothers of the Raue Haus. Besides these permanent institutions there are numerous associations for the care of vagrant children.

These do not place children in *Rettungsanstalten* (or Houses of Refuge), but put them out to private families and exercise a vigilant care over each one of them.

**GERMANY.**—The Fourteenth Congress of the Schoolmasters of Germany has just been held at Mannheim. Among the questions discussed were the best methods of developing memory in children; the means of awakening in them a love of country; the advantages resulting from a larger share being given to gymnastic exercises in education; the study of music, especially of national songs; the necessity of teaching children, with the greatest care, the history of their country, and especially the great deeds and victories of the German people, etc. There are now in the different German States sixty-three educational periodicals.

**WIRTEMBERG.**—Thirty-six reformatories and orphan asylums are in existence. Among them are twenty-three *Rettungsanstalten*, of which fifteen have at present eight hundred and seventy-six children under their care. The expenses of these institutions in 1864 amounted to thirty-four dollars per head. The Central Committee of Benevolence for the kingdom, established in 1816, reported as under its supervision, 180 Infant Asylums, with 10,000 children; 1,409 Industrial Schools, with 65,000 children; 23 *Rettungsanstalten*, with about 1,200 children; 11 societies for the care of vagrants in private families; 1 Institute for Juvenile Delinquents; 1 Deaconess Institution; and one training school for female teachers in infant-schools. The agricultural schools of Wirtemberg begin their work after the reformatories have finished. They take twelve or fifteen boys from the latter and put them either on some farm belonging to the Government, or into the family and under the care of an experienced Christian farmer. The latter has the control of the boys, and the benefit of their work, but must clothe and feed them. Besides the opportunity thus afforded to become good farmers, the boys get regular instruction in elementary branches.

**SWEDEN.**—In 1859, a royal decree empowered women to teach in primary government schools; and this measure has proved so beneficial that the Diet is now considering a proposal for opening to women, not only the higher departments of teaching, but also the medical career. In Stockholm, particularly, almost all the gratuitous elementary schools for both boys and girls are taught by women, at salaries varying from \$200 to \$250 per annum.

**RUSSIA.**—Regulations have been issued by the Russian Government for the introduction of a new system of public instruction in Poland. The language used in the

different schools as a medium of instruction will be that of the majority of inhabitants of the district, whether Polish, Russian, German, or Lithuanian. Spiritual instruction will be imparted by the secular clergy of the different religious persuasions; and the Polish, together with the Russian language and history, will be taught in all the schools of the kingdom.

Female education is to be taken out of the hands of the clergy, and normal schools are to be established, with teachers of both sexes. To secure the strict observance of these regulations a board of directors has been instituted, which will superintend the establishment and see that order is preserved, and that every effort is made to secure the progress of the pupils.

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

**D**R. J. W. DRAPER,<sup>1</sup> at the request of his friends, has prepared an abridgment of his large work on physiology, and offers it as a text-book for schools and colleges. We think the abridgment no more fitted for schools than the treatise itself. It treats only of physiology, and, therefore, requires of the pupil a previous knowledge of anatomy. It is altogether too comprehensive for ordinary students, but will be an excellent text for medical students and members of the higher classes in college. Teachers will find it an excellent book of reference; it contains, in convenient form, the pith of what can elsewhere be found only in large octavos, and the author is regarded as high authority in chemistry and physiology.

THE numerous editions through which Dr. Otto's grammars have passed in Germany and in this country, and the fact that they are used in Harvard and Trinity Colleges, the Free Academy in New York, and King's College, Nova Scotia, is presumptive evidence of their excellence.

They are particularly clear in their arrangement and statement. The rules are definitely expressed, and the lessons and exercises are progressive in character. The French grammar<sup>2</sup> unites the best qualities of Ollendorf and Fasquelle, with the additional advantage of being much more brief. It is especially rich in idiomatic expressions, and is admirably adapted to teach the speaking of French. Part First

treats of the parts of speech and their inflection, and the construction of simple conversational sentences. The excellent exposition of the irregular verbs is to be noticed. In Part Second the syntactical relations of words are shown, and many special and idiomatic uses. The whole is completed by a vocabulary.

The German Grammar<sup>3</sup> is on the same general plan. We noticed the excellent manner in which the genders and declensions of nouns are treated. The verbs, too, are introduced early and fully, and there are copious exercises on the irregular verbs. Reading-lessons are interspersed throughout the book, and at the end is a selection of some of the finest pieces of modern German poetry.

Before Mr. Cuore's Italian Grammar<sup>4</sup> appeared there was no manual of the Italian language accessible in this country that was not grossly defective. With this it is possible to learn that beautiful language with ease and pleasure. This grammar fills a great want, and is an excellent introduction to the tongue of Dante and Boccaccio.

FEW metaphysicians have exercised so great influence upon their generation as John Stuart Mill. Chief in the Positive or Sensational School, he lately published an examination into Sir William Hamilton's system of intuition, or a *priori* truth. In this work he attacked the system, not

(1) A TEXT-BOOK ON PHYSIOLOGY. For the use of schools and colleges. By Jno. WILLIAM DRAPER, M. D., LL.D. 130 engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers. 12mo., pp. 576, \$1 50.

(2) OTTO'S FRENCH CONVERSATION-GRAMMAR. Revised by FERDINAND BOCHER, instructor in French at Harvard College. New York: Leyboldt & Holt, 1866. 12mo., pp. 306, cloth, \$1 75.

(3) GERMAN CONVERSATION-GRAMMAR. A NEW and practical method of learning the German language. By Rev. Dr. EMIL OTTO. 12mo., pp. 502. New York: Leyboldt & Holt, 1866. Cloth, \$2.

(4) ITALIAN CONVERSATION-GRAMMAR. By L. E. CUORE. 12mo. pp. 279. New York: Leyboldt & Holt, 1866. Cloth, \$2.



merely with the energy of an opponent, but also with the venom of one desirous to avenge private injuries; for Hamilton never acknowledged any merit in James Mill's writings, of which J. S. Mill complains in his work. The caustic style and energetic reasoning of the "Examination," led many to regard the *a priori* school as overthrown, and one of the London reviews modestly remarked: "The followers of Hamilton may buy the monument for his philosophy and write its epitaph, for its work is done." The *a priori* school, however, does not accept this decision, and Dr. McCosh\* has published an examination of Mr. Mill's philosophy, in which he defends intuitive or fundamental truth as the true basis of a system, but does not wholly support Hamilton, to whose system he has in previous works taken many and serious objections. The main effort is to destroy the system of Mr. Mill, which he looks upon as mere empiricism and utilitarianism. In Chapter III. he lays the axe at the root of the matter by showing the self-contradiction of the positive school, which he there proves to rest, not upon sensations, as its defenders assert, but upon intuitive principles freely accepted and admitted by Mr. Mill, but not pursued by him to their consequences. In another portion of the work Dr. McCosh argues earnestly against the materialistic tendency of the sensational system, and offers a noble defence of the Christian religion against the aspersions of Comte, Mill, and other Positivists.

Few works equal to this have yet appeared in defence of fundamental truth. It is well fitted to counteract the skeptical and speculative philosophy of the day, and to increase respect for true Christian philosophy. Although essentially metaphysical, yet it is adapted to the wants of the general reader, and cannot fail to advance the author's reputation among many to whom his previous works, more technical in language, were as sealed books. The argument is marked by sound reasoning and vigorous common sense, and is expressed in an attractive style. The whole is manly, unmarred by any display of personal bitterness, or by appeals to the readers' prejudices.

(\*) AN EXAMINATION OF MR. J. S. MILL'S PHILOSOPHY: Being a Defence of Fundamental Truth. By JAMES MCCOSH, LL.D. New York: Carter & Brothers. 8vo, pp. 434, \$3.

PHYSIOGNOMY, as a system, owes its origin to the ingenuity of Lavater, who, in 1778, published his celebrated "Fragments." Others, among them some eminent scientific men, have since written upon this subject; but the majority of works are superficial or purely speculative. The most recent treatise is that of Mr. Wells, which, though less original, is more practical and popular than any preceding it. By most writers the term Physiognomy is restricted to study of the mind through the countenance; but Mr. Wells uses it in a wider sense, and regards every part of man as an aid in forming a just conception of character.<sup>6</sup> In working out his system he has produced an interesting work, in which he contrives to give important information on many topics besides Physiognomy. It is a digest of ethnology, it gives us the symptomatology of insanity, it treats of physiology and hygiene, and incidentally of zoology. The chapter on grades of intelligence is instructive, and that on comparative physiognomy is exceedingly entertaining. The work is embellished with numerous portraits of distinguished men, and contains many *fac simile* autographs. It is a useful book, and we view it as a worthy addition to our library.

THE "Memoirs of a Good-for-Nothing" is a characteristic novel of the romantic school of Germany, which was inspired by the restoration and imitation of the arts and literature of the middle ages. In it the hero tells us his early history, his wanderings and his unique adventures, yet nowhere gives us his name or that of any leading personage in the story. He does not describe his personal appearance, yet so artfully hints concerning it that we are firmly convinced that he possesses a strikingly beautiful presence. The "Good-for-Nothing" is clearly a shiftless person, with no large share of worldly wisdom, but so fascinating and so good-humored amid all circumstances, that good luck seems never to forsake him. The plot is simple, the hero meets with no extraordinary mishaps, and the narrative is told in a natural

(6) NEW PHYSIOGNOMY, OR SIGNS OF CHARACTER. By SAMUEL R. WELLS. New York: Fowler & Wells. Crown 8vo, pp. 768, \$5.00.

(7) MEMOIRS OF A GOOD-FOR-NOTHING. From the German of J. VON EICHENDORFF. By CHARLES G. LELAND. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 16mo, pp. 192, \$2.00.

and ready manner, reminding one somewhat of the "Easy Writer." The story seldom causes a laugh, but a vein of quiet humor pervades the whole, and renders it exceedingly pleasant reading. It is the more interesting to us, in that it gives us a clear view of the free and rollicking artist-life of Germany. It is just the book for a summer day, light and entertaining, yet indirectly instructive. The translator has rendered it into excellent English, and the publishers have got it up in an elegant manner.

The *American Journal of Education* for June contains: I. Pennsylvania System of Normal Schools; II. The Oswego Nor-

mal and Training School; III. Advice on Studies and Conduct; IV. National Teachers' Association; V. Educational Duties of the Hour; VI. Object Teaching; VII. State Normal School System; VIII. Education as an Element in the Policy of Reconstruction; IX. National Educational Bureau; X. American Educational Association; XI. Formation of Character the Main Object of Education; XII. Home and School Training One Hundred Years Ago; XIII. Public Instruction in Austria; XIV. State Educational Conventions and Associations; XV. American and National Conventions and Associations; XVI. Educational Miscellany and Intelligence. Price, single number, \$1.25.

### MISCELLANY.

—It is a fact known to philosophical instrument makers that if a metal wire be drawn through a glass tube, a few hours afterward the tube will burst into fragments. The annealed glass tubes used for the water-gauges of steam-boilers are sometimes destroyed in this way, after the act of forcing a piece of cotton waste through them with a wire, for the purpose of cleaning the bore. This will not happen if a piece of soft wood is employed. The late Andrew Ross once stated that on one occasion, late in the evening, he lightly pushed a piece of cotton wool through a number of barometer tubes, with a piece of cane, for the purpose of cleaning out any particles of dust. The next morning he found most of the tubes broken up into small fragments, the hard silicious coating of the cane proving as destructive as he had previously known a wire to be. In these times, when glass lamp-chimneys are in such wide use, it is of no little importance that this fact should be made known.

—Photography in colors has progressed so far, that a doll dressed by the operator can be perfectly reproduced on the plates. A greater triumph is photographing a peacock's feather. It has been found that none but pure colors take well, those that are made by a mixture of two primary colors giving but one of the primaries on the plate. These photographs will not stand a full light long, as they turn brown, but may be preserved in an album.

—Dr. C. R. Von Hoyer has found that an alloy of cadmium, 224 parts; lead, 517.5; tin, 295; and bismuth, 1,050, will

melt at 149.9° F. An alloy of cadmium, 8, and 4 each of tin, lead, and bismuth, fuses at 158.5°. An alloy of cadmium, 1, with 2 each of the others, or an alloy of one part of each of the four metals, fuses at 155.8°. They all become pasty at lower temperatures, and all oxidize rapidly in water.

NEW AND SIMPLE MODE OF REPRODUCING DRAWINGS, ETC.—The drawing having been made with a solution of gum, glue, varnish, or any other fluid which will impart hardness, it is transferred to a plate of plaster of Paris, chalk, or any thing else that is easily pulverized. This plate, having been allowed to dry, is brushed until the material between the lines of the drawing, which is not affected by the process, is removed to a sufficient depth; after which, it is immersed in gum, or glue, to harden the entire surface. The result is an admirable copy of the drawing in relief, and from this a *fac-simile* in metal may be obtained in the usual way.

—A Baptist minister visiting the oil region in Kentucky, found actively engaged in the work of getting petroleum, one of his brethren, who insisted that it was a Scriptural occupation, Job having been in the oil business. Some doubt being expressed at this novel statement, he got a Bible, and, turning to Job 29: 6, read: "The rock poured me out rivers of oil." "Now," says he, "what use do you suppose Job had for three thousand camels and five hundred yoke of oxen, unless it was to carry his oil to market? He certainly did not need that number for farming. As they had no railroads then, he

needed them if he had a flowing well of oil."

—It is said that the Buena Vista Vineyard in Senora County, California, is the largest in the world. It consists of 6,000 acres, with 272,000 vines planted previous to 1865, and 700,000 planted, or to be planted this year. Last year the yield was 42,000 gallons of still wine, 60,000 bottles of sparkling wine, and 12,000 gallons of brandy. One hundred men are constantly employed, and double that number during the vintage. There are 8,000 fruit-trees, and large varieties of grapes.

—The city of Lyons consumes annually two million of pounds of spun silk. Four cocoons and a fraction are necessary to produce a gramme (the five hundredth part of a pound); consequently the consumption of Lyons alone requires 4,200,000 cocoons. The length of silk thread in each being about 500 metres, the total is equal to 2,100,000 millions of metres, which is fourteen times the distance of the earth from the sun, or 5,494 times that of the moon from the earth. That length would encircle the globe at the equator 52,505 times, or reach 200,000 times round the moon.

## INVENTIONS FOR SCHOOLS.

**THE DESK SETTEE.**—In most of our schools, both public and private, the opening exercises, examinations, and receptions are usually conducted in the principal room, where all the pupils are assembled. As these rooms are commonly furnished with ordinary settees, to accommodate the largest number possible, they are almost useless except for just such occasions.

D. J. STAGG, Esq., New York city, has recently invented THE DESK SETTEE, which fully remedies this great difficulty and loss.

The construction of the Desk Settee is such that it may be easily transformed from a Settee to a Writing Desk, or vice versa, by any boy or girl. The seat-board D, in figure 2 of the illustration on the next page, is turned upward to form a Desk, as shown at C, in both figures. The plan is so simple and effective that, in a moment, an *Assembly or Lecture Room* may become a busy school-room, furnished with seats and desks, in alternate rows; and requiring but little more material and expense than for ordinary seats alone. For country school-houses, which are sometimes used for religious meetings, this invention seems invaluable.

Behind each row of Desk Settees may be an ordinary seat, but to give uniformity in appearance the FOLDING SEAT SETTEE is recommended to accompany. When not in use this seat may be turned against the back, to allow additional space for passing, for gymnastic exercises, marching, or for the purpose of sweeping the room.

In many villages and towns where Public Halls or Lecture Rooms are desirable,

but cannot be afforded on account of the expense, the introduction of the Desk Settee would contribute largely to their support, for the same room could be used for school purposes during the day, and for lectures in the evening, without the trouble of removing desks and seats.

The side frames, or stanchions, and the pieces to which the seat boards are attached, are of cast-iron. The seat boards and backs of those now used in our city schools are of cherry-wood, but they can be made of any other wood that may be desired. The Settees are made of different heights, ranging from 11 to 16 inches in height of seat; and by use of intermediate stanchions, they are made in sections of 4 to 5½ feet each, and may be extended to any length required.

The merits of this invention seem to be readily appreciated. The Desk Settees are being rapidly introduced into the public schools of New York city. Though but recently patented, they are already used in twenty-four assembly-rooms in the city; among them are those of Grammar Schools Nos. 1, 8, 15, 17, 40, 45, 49, 54, 55, and Primary Schools Nos. 3, 10, and 36. It is also in use in the Normal School at Oswego, N. Y.; in the public schools at Yonkers, N. Y.; at Hudson City, N. J.; also in the Hall and School at Webster, Missouri. In all cases they give perfect satisfaction, because of their real convenience, economy, and durability. See cuts on next page. Specimens of this furniture may be seen at the publication rooms of the MONTHLY, 430 Broome-street, N. Y.

Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.

